

Structural basis and functional analysis of the SARS coronavirus nsp14–nsp10 complex

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Nonstructural protein 14 (nsp14) of coronaviruses (CoV) is important for viral replication and transcription. The N-terminal exoribonuclease (ExoN) domain plays a proofreading role for prevention of lethal mutagenesis, and the C-terminal domain functions as a (guanine-N7) methyl transferase (N7-MTase) for mRNA capping. The molecular basis of both these functions is unknown. Here, we describe crystal structures of severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS)-CoV nsp14 in complex with its activator nonstructural protein10 (nsp10) and functional ligands. One molecule of nsp10 interacts with ExoN of nsp14 to stabilize it and stimulate its activity. Although the catalytic core of nsp14 ExoN is reminiscent of proofreading exonucleases, the presence of two zinc fingers sets it apart from homologs. Mutagenesis studies indicate that both these zinc fingers are essential for the function of nsp14. We show that a DEEDh (the five catalytic amino acids) motif drives nucleotide excision. The N7-MTase domain exhibits a noncanonical MTase fold with a rare β -sheet insertion and a peripheral zinc finger. The cap-precursor guanosine-P3-adenosine-5',5'-triphosphate and S-adenosyl methionine bind in proximity in a highly constricted pocket between two β -sheets to accomplish methyl transfer. Our studies provide the first glimpses, to our knowledge, into the architecture of the nsp14–nsp10 complex involved in RNA viral proofreading.

CoV | nsp14 | proofreading | exoribonuclease | methyltransferase

Coronaviruses (CoV), belonging to the Coronaviridae family in the order Nidovirales (1), are one of the major threats to public health. The most notable infections are the severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) and Middle East respiratory syndrome (MERS) caused by the SARS-CoV and MERS-CoV, respectively (2, 3). SARS-CoV brought about more than 8,000 infections and 800 deaths, and MERS-CoV has caused 1,139 cases of infections and 431 deaths till May 25, 2015 (www.who.int/en/).

CoVs have the largest genomes among RNA viruses (4). There are 14 ORFs in the genome of SARS-CoV. Among these, ORF1a and ORF1b encode 16 nonstructural proteins (nsp) that predominantly play a role in replication and transcription (5). Within these nsps, nsp12 functions as a RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (RdRp), and nsp8 together with nsp7 functions as a primase and confers processivity to polymerization by nsp12 (6–8). More importantly, the nsp7–nsp8–nsp12 complex can associate with nsp14 without impacting RNA synthesis (8). This interaction is crucial, because nsp14 has been shown to play a pivotal role in decreasing the incidence of mismatched nucleotides through its exoribonuclease domain (ExoN) (9–11), a role akin to a proofreading ExoN associated with a polymerase. Abrogation of the nsp14 ExoN activity results in enhanced sensitivity to the RNA mutagen 5-fluorouracil (12, 13). The nsp14–nsp10 complex can exquisitely excise 3' mismatched nucleotides from dsRNA (14). Disturbance of the interaction between nsp14 and nsp10 has been shown to result in a decrease in replication fidelity (15). Consequently, in contrast to the general replication fidelity of RNA viruses (10^{-3} – 10^{-5}), the low mutation rate (10^{-6} – 10^{-7}) of SARS-CoV is tied to the ExoN activity. A DEDDh (the five catalytic amino acids) motif drives catalysis by

nsp14 that is important for the viral replication and transcription (14, 16). In vivo studies using mouse models have demonstrated a role for this ExoN activity in viral virulence and pathogenesis (17). Nsp14 is highly conserved within the Coronaviridae family. Intriguingly, ExoNs also are encoded by RNA viruses belonging to the order Nidovirales with genomes larger than 20 kb (4, 18, 19).

In addition, nsp14 is also known to function as an S-adenosyl methionine (SAM)-dependent (guanine-N7) methyl transferase (N7-MTase) (20). Assembly of a cap1 structure at the 5' end of viral mRNA assists in translation and evading host defense (21–23). Formation of this cap in SARS-CoV requires four sequential reactions. First, nsp13 RNA triphosphatase (RTPase) hydrolyzes nascent RNA to yield pp-RNA (24). Then an unknown guanylyltransferase (GTase) hydrolyzes GTP, transfers the product GMP to pp-RNA, and creates Gppp-RNA. Then nsp14 methylates the 5' guanine of the Gppp-RNA at the N7 position, followed by methylation of the ribose of the first nucleotide at the 2'-O position by nsp16 (20, 25). Nsp10 has been shown to activate the 2'-O-MTase activity of nsp16 by stabilizing the SAM-binding pocket and extending the substrate RNA-binding groove of nsp16 (26, 27). Similarly, the ExoN activity of nsp14 is fully unleashed only in the presence of nsp10 (14). However, the molecular basis for this activation is poorly understood.

Significance

Proofreading exonucleases contributing to replication fidelity in DNA viruses and cellular organisms are well known; however, proofreading in RNA viruses was unknown until recently. Coronavirus nonstructural protein 14 (nsp14) has been shown to function as a proofreading exoribonuclease. Additionally, nsp14 shows (guanine-N7) methyl transferase activity for viral mRNA capping. Both roles are important for viral replication and transcription. Here, we report the structures of severe acute respiratory syndrome-coronavirus nsp14 in complex with its activator nonstructural protein 10 (nsp10) and functional ligands. Structural observations coupled with mutagenesis and functional assays provide a better understanding of the function of nsp14. Furthermore, the structures of the nsp14–nsp10 complex demonstrate several unique niches that could be targeted for development of potent antiviral drugs.

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Data deposition: The structures reported in this article have been deposited in the Protein Data Bank, www.pdb.org (PDB ID codes 5C85, 5C8T, and 5C8U).

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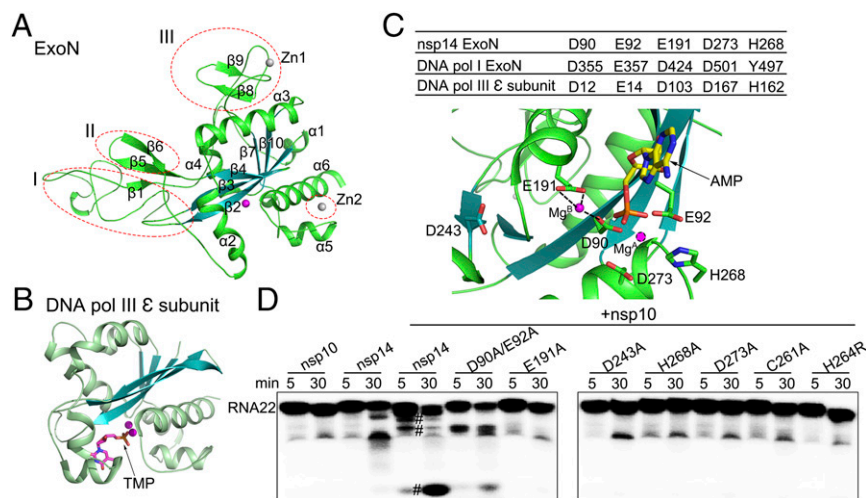


Fig. 2. Comparison of the structure and catalytic residues of nsp14 ExoN domain with proofreading homologs. (A) Cartoon representation of the ExoN domain marked with secondary structural elements. The three different regions from other DEDD superfamily exonucleases are indicated by red dashed ellipses. (B) The structure of the *E. coli* ϵ subunit of polymerase III (Pol III) is shown in the same orientation as nsp14 for comparison. Metal ions are shown as spheres, and bound ligands are shown as sticks. (C) The active center of the ExoN domain of nsp14. (Upper) Catalytic residues of the ExoN domain of nsp14, the exonuclease domain of DNA polymerase I, and the ϵ subunit of DNA polymerase III of *E. coli* are listed in the table. (Lower) Catalytic residues, the modeled substrate AMP, and the mistaken D243 are shown as sticks. Mg^{2+} observed in the structure and Mg^A modeled are shown as spheres. Dashed lines indicate the hydrogen bonds between Mg^{2+} and D90 and E191. (D) Exoribonuclease assays for nsp10, nsp14 alone, and nsp14 or nsp14 mutants in complex with nsp10 on 5'-labeled ssRNA of 22 nucleosides (RNA22). The symbol “#” indicates cleavage products.

of nsp10 for enzymatic activity of nsp14. Known structures of nsp10 could be superimposed over the nsp14–nsp10 complex with an rmsd of <0.8 Å between matching $C\alpha$ atoms over the entire length of nsp10. Two regions of nsp10 contribute the major residues for nsp14–nsp10 interaction (Fig. 3A). The first contact area involves the entire N-terminal loop and helix $\alpha 1$ (Pro1–Leu24) of nsp10, which has led to interpretable electron density for these first nine residues of nsp10 that were not observed in previous structures (26, 27, 36, 37). The residues Ala1, Asn3, and Glu6 of nsp10 stabilize the N terminus of nsp14 by forming hydrogen bonds with Lys9, Asp10, and Thr5, respectively, whereas Phe16, Phe19, and Val21 of nsp10 form van der Waals interactions with Phe60, Met62, and Tyr64 of nsp14 (Fig. 3B and D). The second region of intermolecular interactions is extensive and encompasses residues from the loop region following

helix $\alpha 2$ and residues around zinc finger 1. Here, a number of complementary hydrogen bonds are observed; Asn40, Lys43, Leu45, Thr58, Ser72, Lys93, and Tyr96 of nsp10 interact with Thr25, His26, Cys39, Asp41, Ala23, Tyr51, and His19 of the N terminus of nsp14. A salt bridge formed between His80 of nsp10 and Asp126 of nsp14 and a hydrogen bond between Cys90 of nsp10 and Asn129 of nsp14 stabilize the structural elements between $\beta 5$ and $\beta 6$ of nsp14 (Fig. 3C and D). The extensive interaction of nsp10 with nsp14 suggests that nsp10 might be necessary to maintain the structural stability of the ExoN domain and fully unleash the ExoN activity of nsp14 (14).

Previous mutagenesis studies had shown that regions of nsp10 contacting nsp14 and nsp16 overlap substantially (38, 39). Comparison of the nsp14–nsp10 complex with the nsp16–nsp10 complex surprisingly reveals that a significantly larger surface area of nsp10 contacts with nsp14 (Fig. S4). The buried solvent-

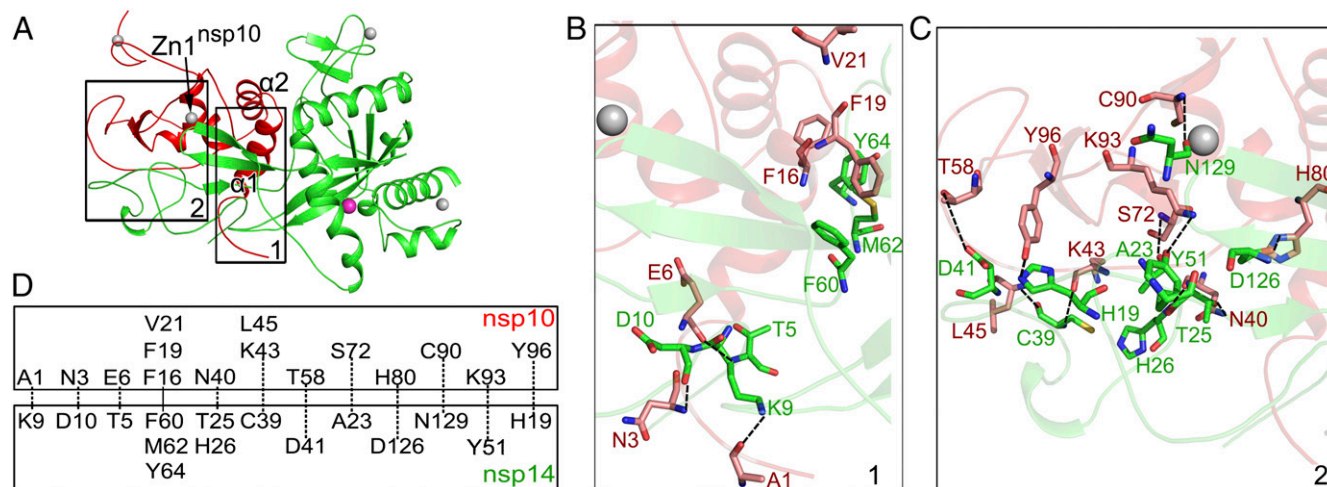


Fig. 3. Intermolecular interactions between nsp14 and nsp10. Zinc ions are represented as gray spheres in A–C. (A) The Nsp14 ExoN domain (green) is stabilized by nsp10 (red). Two regions of nsp10 (boxed) contribute major interactions with nsp14. $Zn1^{nsp10}$, the first zinc ion of nsp10. (B and C) Interaction details by regions 1 (B) and 2 (C). Hydrogen bonds between residues are shown by dashed lines. Residues of nsp14 and nsp10 involved in interaction are displayed as green and red sticks, respectively. (D) Schematic representation of the contacts between nsp10 and nsp14.

Intriguingly, zinc finger 3 of nsp14 located in the N7-MTase domain is spatially isolated from the active site, ruling out a direct role for this motif in catalysis (Fig. 4A). Consistent with this observation, C452A and H487R mutations of zinc finger 3 had only a marginal effect on the MTase activity (Fig. 4C). The peripheral location of zinc finger 3 may be more suited to forging protein–protein interactions, for example binding with the nsp16–nsp10 complex to accomplish the second methyl transfer reaction essential for formation of cap1 structure.

Raw TLC data of the N7-MTase activity assays are included as Fig. S7.

The Interactions Between the Two Naturally Fused Domains. The ExoN and MTase domains of nsp14 are interlinked, and they interact using hydrophobic interactions (Fig. S8). Three α -helices of ExoN stabilize the N-terminal loop (Lys288–Asp301) and the β -sheet of N7-MTase domain, the base of the substrate binding pocket of N7-MTase. Ile80 and Val83 of α 1, Leu177 of α 3, and Val282 and Phe286 of α 6 form hydrophobic interactions with Val294, Tyr296, Pro297, Ile299, Leu411, Pro412, and Leu419. All these amino acids are highly conserved within members of the coronavirus genus (Fig. S3), highlighting an important conserved role for these residues (28).

Model for the Role of nsp14 in Proofreading and mRNA Capping. To envision how nsp14 could participate in the functioning of the replication and transcription complex (RTC), we attempted to infer the interaction mode between nsp14 and nsp12, the RdRp. The polymerization and proofreading sites of DNA polymerases are located on different domains or subunits that are typically separated by a distance of 30 Å or more (42). In contrast, during transcription, RNA polymerases carry out both these functions using the same active sites (43). In this context, nsp14 is functionally and structurally more similar to the proofreading exonuclease domain of DNA polymerases. Using the known structure of the Klenow fragment of DNA polymerase I (PDB ID code 1KLN) as a guide, the ExoN domain of nsp14 was placed next to the polymerization site (Fig. 5). During instances of mismatch of nucleotides, the nascent strand is moved to the ExoN site for excision. As the newly synthesized strand is extended, a cap0 structure is first assembled at the 5' end. This assembly would require the enzymatic activities of a RTPase contributed by nsp13 (24), a guanylyl transferase, which is yet to be identified, and the N7-MTase activity of nsp14. Last, the 2'-O-MTase activity of nsp16 would result in the formation of a cap1 structure at the 5' end of the newly synthesized RNA. Such a model accounts for nsp13 functioning as a helicase for unwinding double-stranded nucleic acids and the direct nsp13–nsp12 interactions (44, 45). Further experiments are necessary to shed more light on the relative orientation of the various active sites of the RTC and how the RNA is maneuvered for formation of the cap1 structure.

Conclusions

The structures of SARS-CoV nsp14 in complex with nsp10 described here reveal that the core structural elements and catalytic residues of the proofreading ExoN domain of nsp14 are highly similar to those of its eukaryotic and prokaryotic predecessors. Furthermore, nsp14 of SARS-CoV has gained some striking and remarkable structural features to accomplish additional tasks such as the methylation of N7 of guanine of cap precursors. Our studies unveil several of these nsp14-specific features. First, nsp10 contacts the nsp14 ExoN domain to provide structural support and facilitate its ExoN activity for proofreading. Second, two zinc fingers are located on the ExoN domain. Our mutagenesis studies show that both zinc fingers are essential for the nsp14 function. Third, the N7-MTase domain of nsp14 adopts an atypical MTase fold and ropes in a second β -sheet to bind the substrates in a highly constricted cavity to accomplish methyl transfer. This N7-MTase domain carries a third zinc finger that is located remote from the active sites.

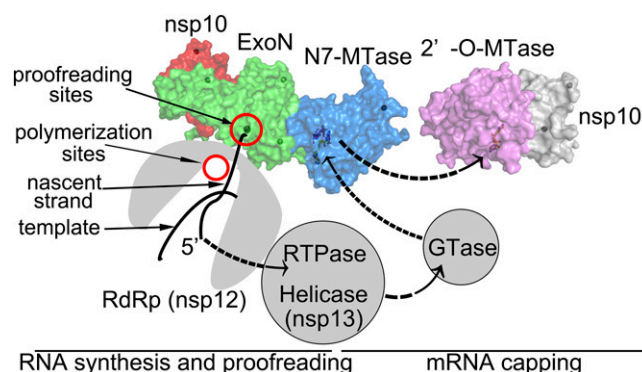


Fig. 5. Model for the role of nsp14 in proofreading and mRNA capping. Nascent RNA is synthesized at the polymerization sites (red circle) of the nsp12 RdRp domain (gray) or is mismatch excised at the proofreading site (red circles) of nsp14 ExoN (green surface). The relative orientation of the polymerization and proofreading domains is built based on the Klenow fragment. The 5' end of newly synthesized mRNA is modified by sequential activities contributed by RTPase of nsp13, GTase (currently unknown), N7-MTase of nsp14, and 2'-O-MTase of nsp16 (light pink surface, PDB ID code 3R24) for formation of a cap1 structure.

Combined with previous functional data, this work provides evidence for the likely mechanism underlying the involvement of nsp14 in viral replication and transcription.

Materials and Methods

Protein Production. Full-length nsp10 and nsp14 of SARS-CoV isolate Tor2/FP1-10851 were synthesized by GENEWIZ Inc. and cloned into pGEX-6p-1 and pRSFDuet-1, respectively. Nsp10 with an N-terminal GST tag and nsp14 with a C-terminal His tag were coexpressed in *E. coli* BL21 (DE3). Cells were grown at 37 °C and induced with 0.1 mM isopropyl β -D-thiogalactoside when OD_{600nm} reached 0.8. After induction at 16 °C for 18 h, cells were harvested, resuspended, and lysed by sonication in 20 mM Hepes (pH 7.0), 150 mM NaCl, 4 mM MgCl₂, and 5% (vol/vol) glycerol. After centrifugation, recombinant protein was purified by GST-affinity chromatography. The GST tag of nsp10 was removed by PreScission protease. Excess nsp10 was separated from the nsp14–nsp10 complex by HiTrap S ion-exchange chromatography (GE Healthcare).

Mutagenesis was performed using the Easy Mutagenesis System (Transgen Biotech). All nsp14 mutants were coexpressed with nsp10 and purified as described above.

Nsp14 alone was purified using Ni-nitrilotriacetate affinity resin (GE Healthcare) with a gradient of imidazole for washing and elution.

Crystallization. Crystallization was performed by the hanging-drop vapor-diffusion method at 16 °C. Each crystallization drop consisted of 1 μ L of nsp14–nsp10 complex (10 mg/mL) mixed with 10 mM DTT and 0.25 mM SAM and 1 μ L of the mother liquor equilibrated over 200 μ L of reservoir solution. Diffraction-quality crystals grew in 15% (vol/vol) Tacsimate (pH 7.0), 0.1 M Hepes (pH 7.0), and 2% (wt/vol) polyethylene glycol 3,350 after optimization by microseeding. Diffraction was further improved by dehydration in 25% glycerol for 3 min. To obtain a complex of nsp14–nsp10 with SAM and GpppA, crystals were soaked with 50 mM GpppA (New England Biolabs).

Data Collection and Structure Determination. X-ray diffraction data were collected at Shanghai Synchrotron Radiation Facility beamlines BL19U and 17B. All data were processed with the program HKL3000 (46). The initial phases were calculated by the single-wavelength anomalous dispersion method using the anomalous signal of zinc atoms with the program PHENIX.autosol (47). A total of 10 zinc atoms were found using HYSS (48). After phasing, twofold non-crystallographic symmetry was identified and used in subsequent density modification, dramatically improving the phases of diffraction data. Two molecules of nsp10 (PDB ID code 2G9T) were docked into the map using MOLREP (49). Other parts of the complex were manually built in COOT (50) and iteratively refined in PHENIX.refine (51). To solve the structure of the unliganded nsp14–nsp10 complex or nsp14–nsp10–SAM–GpppA complex, molecular replacement was done first in MOLREP using the structure of the nsp14–nsp10–SAM complex as the search model, and then the structures were refined in PHENIX.refine. Data collection and refinement statistics are listed in Table S1.

Exoribonuclease Activity Assay. ssRNA made up of 22 nucleotides (RNA22, 5'-GGGCGAUUAGGAGCUAACUGCG-3') was used as a substrate for activity assays (16). To obtain 5'-labeled RNA22, it was incubated with T4 polynucleotide kinase (New England Biolabs) and γ -[32 P]-ATP (PerkinElmer). MicroSpin G-25 columns (GE Healthcare) were used to remove excess γ -[32 P]-ATP. Later, RNA22 was extracted with phenol-chloroform and precipitated with ethanol.

Reaction mixtures contained 300 nM nsp14-nsp10 complex (or nsp14 mutant-nsp10 complex or nsp14 alone), 1,000-cpm labeled RNA22, and 300 nM unlabeled RNA22 in a buffer made up of 50 mM Hepes (pH 7.0), 50 mM NaCl, 5 mM MgCl₂, and 1 mM DTT. After incubation at 37 °C for 5 or 30 min, the reactions were stopped by the addition of an equal volume of loading buffer (96% formamide with 10 mM EDTA). Products were separated on 20% 7-M urea-containing polyacrylamide gels and visualized through PhosphorImager.

MTase Activity Assay. DNA fragments including the optimized T7 class II promoter Φ 2.5 with ATP as initial nucleotide (52) and the 5'-terminal 259 nucleotides of the SARS-CoV genome (20) were used as a template for *in vitro* transcription. We then used the Vaccinia capping system (except for SAM) (New England Biolabs) and α -[32 P]-GTP to label the 5' terminus of the RNA to G^{ppp}A-RNA. To improve the efficiency of the reaction, 0.05 U inorganic pyrophosphatase

(New England Biolabs) was added. G-50 Sephadex columns (Roche) were used to remove unused α -[32 P]-GTP. RNA was extracted with phenol-chloroform and precipitated with ethanol.

MTase activity was tested as follows: 0.1 μ g nsp14-nsp10 complex or nsp14 mutant-nsp10 complex was mixed with 1,000-cpm labeled RNA in a buffer made up of 50 mM Hepes (pH 7.0), 6 mM KCl, 5 mM DTT, 1 mM MgCl₂, and 0.2 mM SAM. After incubation at 37 °C for 6 min, 5 μ g nuclease P1 (Sigma) and 1 mM ZnCl₂ were added to digest the RNA. Reaction products were spotted on polyethylenimine cellulose plates (Merck) to separate G^{ppp}A from capped m7G^{ppp}A and were visualized using a PhosphorImager.

The marker m7G^{ppp}A was prepared as above, except that inorganic pyrophosphatase was replaced by 0.2 mM SAM.

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